THE GENESEE FARMER.

Vol. VI. ROCHESTER, NOVEMBER 19, 1836. No. 47.

Published by Luther Tucker.

TERMS.—The Farmer is published every Saturday, making an annual volume of 416 pages, to which is added a Title-page and Index, at the low price of $2,50, or $2,00 if payment is made at the time of subscribing.

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THE GENESEE FARMER.

SATURDAY, NOVEMBER 19, 1836.

USEFUL ARTS.

Manufacture of Iron.

At a time when all the world is awake on the subject of rail-roads, and the mania respecting them promises to be as extensive as that which once existed for canals—when companies for their construction have been incorporated in Great Britain, sufficient to consume all the iron that can be produced in that country for two years to come—when more than 3000 miles have been projected in this country, for the iron of which we depended on foreign countries, but for which recent events show we must mainly rely on ourselves, it is matter of congratulation that a process has been discovered which will greatly reduce the price of the article, by nearly doubling the quantity which a given amount of labor and cost will produce.

This improvement has been introduced by Mr. Nielson of Scotland, and consists in *heating the air* used for the blast of the smelting furnaces. It is effected by passing the air from the bellows through red hot cast iron pipes, by which its temperature is raised to 6 or 700 degrees of Fahr. and the current will melt lead and sometimes zinc. Formerly it was necessary to convert the coal into coke, by which about one half its weight was lost; now the coal is itself used, and this great loss is averted. In 1829 by the old method, 3 furnaces produced 111 tons of iron, using 403 tons of coke, to make which required 888 tons of coal. In 1835, by the new method, 4 furnaces made 245 tons of iron, using only 554 tons of coal. So intense is the heat produced, that to prevent the melting of the cast iron lining near the nozzles of the blow pipes, it has become necessary to substitute for the solid lining a hollow one, through which cold water is constantly passing.

The theory of the operation of the heated air is thus explained by Dr. Clark. By an examination of the quantity of air consumed at the Calder iron works, he found that 2867 cubic feet per minute was used, which at the temperature of 50° Fahrenheit, would weigh 2 cwt., or six tons of air an hour. This quantity of cold air thrown into the furnace acts as a prodigious refrigeratory on the hottest part of the mass, and must materially reduce its temperature. By previously heating this current of air, it is at liberty to act in promoting combustion, without robbing that combustion of any of the heat thus produced.

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Threshing Machines.

At some of the agricultural exhibitions of the present year, in New England, a new threshing machine was shown, which from its cheapness, simplicity, and ease of working, promises to be of great service to the great class of small farmers in our country. When worked by hand, two men and two boys can with ease thresh 100 bushels of oats in a day, or other grain in proportion, and when fitted to a proper power, one horse is sufficient for its propulsion. Should the machine, on further trial, answer the recommendations given it, and the expectations formed of it, it will meet a great want of the farming community, and find a general adoption. We have long been convinced from observation and partial experience, that the general run of threshing machines are too complicated, too liable to get out of repair, and from both these causes too costly for general use. It is very convenient for the farmer to have a machine to do his threshing when he pleases; but rather than purchase the costly ones in common use, with their continual liability to need expensive repairs, the man who does not raise more than 6 or 8 hundred bushels of grain in a year, finds it better to employ ambulatory machines, at such times as he can get them, than to have one of his own; and the reason is obvious: the interest on the purchase money, and the insurance against repairs, will nearly or quite pay for the threshing.

Threshing machines are one of the greatest farming improvements of the age; the extensive introduction of the culture of wheat, with the advantage of making early sales, has rendered their use, where the white flint is used, nearly indispensable. We are always glad to perceive any approach towards simplifying any such machines, since it renders them better adapted to the wants of the great mass of farmers; placing such, so far as the influence of labor-saving machines extend, more on an equal with the extensive cultivator of the soil. Would it not be good policy for two neighbor farmers of limited means to unite in the purchase of such a cheap machine—always admitting it answers the end designed—and one of Green's straw cutters, with a power sufficient to operate them. Cutting straw and hay it is believed will yet be extensively adopted by all farmers who understand their true interests; and though partnership is in no case exactly agreeable, still, in the case we have proposed, it will probably be found as little liable to exception, and as advantageous in adoption, as in any manner the principle of mutual aid can be applied.

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Manufacture of Hoes.

Nations, in some respects, should be actuated by the same principles that govern the successful farmer—they should never procure of others what they can advantageously produce at home. People need not trouble themselves about the balance of trade; the different products, and the various wants of nations, will take care of that. We are glad to perceive by the journals of the day, that some companies have with energy commenced the manufacture of hoes in this country; and when it is remembered that from one and a half to two millions of dollars worth are annually imported from England, it will be acknowledged that it was time to begin to render ourselves independent of others for this implement of prime necessity to the farmer.

The imported hoes were, a large part of them, designed for the southern market, or what are called Guinea hoes; but large quantities of the common kind were distributed in the shops of the north. These, in most instances, are made on the plan of Pindar's razors—to sell—being nothing more than common rolled iron with eyes rivetted upon them, and we are sorry to notice, that in Pennsylvania one factory at least, has commenced making them on the same plan. Every man who knows the value of a good hoe, knows that without a cutting edge of good tempered steel, they are worth very little; and he also knows, that when durability and ease of working are taken into consideration, a rightly made article of the kind, at double the price, is the cheapest in the end.

The morality of nations unfortunately is such, as to allow them to defraud one another in this way with impunity, but the habit of shaving must be inveterate indeed, when they are thus led to impose upon themselves, and that farmer must be sorely negligent of his true interests, who will wear out his strength on a vile, blunt, iron implement, when a bright, sharp, clean cutting one can be procured at any resonable rate. G.

Curing Corn.

Farmers the present year have had a fine opportunity of testing the respective merits of the two modes of saving corn by topping, or cutting up by the bottom, respecting which some diversity still appears to exist among those who are the most interested. The frost of the fifth of September was widely and severely felt; and while some adopted the old method of topping, others resorted to cutting up by the ground, and when dried, setting up in small stacks. Either course was undoubtedly preferable to letting the corn stand with the dead tops adhering; but we think experience will convince all who are careful observers, that cutting at the ground, is greatly to be preferred by the farmer, who wishes to make as much as possible of his frost-bitten field of corn. We knew of two pieces of corn, owned by the same individuals, planted nearly at the same time, and both equally promising, when their progress was stopped by the frost of the fifth. One of the pieces was immediately topped, and the other was, as soon as possible, cut up by the bottom and stacked. They were both husked a short time since, and the owners assured us, that, contrary to the expectation of many who witnessed the different modes of cur-

ing, they should get at least one-third more sound corn from that cut up, than from that which was lopped and left on the hill. o.

From the Vermont Chronicle.

Agricultural Societies.

The utility of Agricultural Societies has been sometimes doubted; and it is no wonder that, when first formed, they should now and then be so managed as to dissatisfy intelligent practical farmers. Mistakes are to be expected in new enterprises. The way to judge of the utility of these societies, and of the cattle shows and fairs got up under their direction, is to look at districts where they have existed for many years, and have been conducted with spirit and well-directed enterprise.

Now it is a fact, that in Scotland extensive regions that were formerly of little value, have become like gardens in beauty and a source of great prosperity to the cultivators, very much through the influence of an agricultural society, its shows, and publications. The same may be said of many parts of England—of Dutchess, now the model farming county of New York—of Berkshire, Worcester, and Essex counties, Massachusetts, &c. In these places societies have been kept up for many years; they have the confidence of the public; all classes of citizens are interested in them; and their annual meetings are made the means of pleasure and improvement. The most successful farmers take the deepest interest in the societies; and are ready, through them, to diffuse, as far as practicable, the skill on which their success depends. They animate and encourage the farmer in his pursuits; they excite him to new enterprise; he becomes, through them, more extensively acquainted with men successfully engaged in the same pursuits, and collects, from year to year, information that adds greatly to the pleasures and profits of his daily business.

We have in mind at this moment, a farm in Windsor county, on which a large crop of corn was well ripened this year before the hard frosts, while the crops on the neighboring farms suffered severely. The owner planted seed of an early kind. It would have been worth more than *one* hundred thousand dollars to this single county, had all our farmers planted seed of the same kind and quality the present year. Seasons happen not unfrequently, in which there is extensive and severe loss on the corn crops by early frosts. Now the fact that we have mentioned, shows that such lossses are unnecessary. We may procure seed that shall yield good crops—we doubt not decidedly better than the present average—and yet always be safe from autumnal frosts. This would also be of a great advantage in other respects. It would enable farmers to get in their wheat, to succeed, in good season—which is no slight advantage. It would furnish food for hogs earlier; and the same quantity of food will go much further in fattening pork in moderately warm than in cold weather.

Suppose, then, that we had an Agricultural Society in the county, which should be in the habit of inquiring into such subjects, of diffusing information respecting them, and of introducing new kinds of seed when the interest of farmers might be promoted by it. What an immense benefit it might be to the county, in relation to this single article of Indian corn! And similar statements might be made with truth in relation to many other agricultural pursuits.

It may be said that individuals can make inquiries and introduce new kinds of corn, &c, for themselves. Very true. They can to some extent. But every man would have his own notion, in nine cases out of ten perhaps to his own injury and that of his neighbors', merely because unacquainted with facts. You, in Norwich, would hear of a kind of corn in Chester, or in the center of N. Hampshire, or in Maine, represented as combining every excellence. You take the trouble and incur the expense of getting a supply; but after all it turns out to be not so good as your own, or perhaps the same that your next neighbor cultivates. A society could institute inquiries throughout the county, and elsewhere, and collect information that might be relied on; and arrangements might be made to place such information at the service of every farmer. And more: the society might procure seed in large quantities, and distribute it through the county, in many cases to good advantage.

But we need not pursuo the subject. We should be glad to see societies in all our counties; and also to see liberal appropriations made by our Legislature for their encouragement. Agriculture has at least as strong claims to legislative encouragement as manufactures, or any other interest, and may be encouraged to good effect as cheaply.

From the Maine Farmer.

Sheep Pastures good to raise Wheat.

Mr. Holmes—In conversation with a friend of mine at the late Cattle Show and Fair, who is from the county of Somerset, he informed me that he raised his wheat principally by ploughing up his sheep pasture. After he had pastured his best tillage about three years with sheep, he broke it up and sowed it with wheat. He had become so successful in the mode of raising this grain in this way, that he averred he would not let a man pasture his sheep if he would do it for nothing. Last season he sowed 25 bushels on about twelve and a half acres of land. He has not threshed it yet, but he believed that from appearances, he was warranted in saying that the yield was twenty-five bushels to the acre. From this I am led to make the following calculations. Wheat will probably be worth two dollars and fifty cents the bushel to grind into flour, taking the present price of flour as data to go upon. If this is right, the amount per acre will be $62 50. If the straw will pay for threshing, $8 50 will cover all the expenses of growing it—we will however call it nine dollars, —this will leave him, to say nothing about rent, taxes, or fences, $53 50 per acre, which, he says, is profit enough to satisfy any honest man. This has been done the present year, provided I am right in my calculation, and I have more fears that wheat will be higher than lower. The profits on these twelve acres and a half, will amount to six hundred and sixty-nine dollars and thirty cents. He said that he had already ploughed about thirty acres to sow in the ensuing spring. In his neighborhood, he remarked, the rage was all for lumbering, but he was determined not to lumber, and he hoped not to go to New York to mill. What is not a little strange in this thing is, that this profitable crop was grown on land that would not bring more than ten dollars per acre.

Now, sir, I am fully persuaded that the mighty machine called public opinion ought to be set right as it regards agriculture and the mechanic arts, not only in that neighborhood, but throughout our whole state, or we shall never be rich or happy. We must give up the wild notion of getting rich in a day. We must throw ourselves on the stable faundations of industry and economy for a living. Elijah Wood.

Winthrop, Oct. 1836.

From the (London) Farmers' Magazine, for September, 1836.

Cultivation of Potatoes.

Sir—I observe it stated, that in some counties there is a great failure of the potatoe crop; this, I think, may be remedied by sowing the seed. Sets will not last above twelve or fourteen years; after that time they decline, and hardly return treble seed. I tried the experiment last year, in a small way, and the produce was astonishing. What is very remarkable is, that these seedlings produce potatoes of different kinds, and sometimes new sorts are procured. It is no difference whether the apple comes from one kind or another. I saved the red rough seed, and I had five sorts from it.

The following is the method I took, to get them the size of hen's eggs in one year: Take a bunch of potatoe apples, of any sort, in November, when they are ripe; hang them up in a warm room during winter, and at the end of March, separate the seed from the pulp, by putting them into a basin of water until they are soft; squeeze them with the fingers—gently pour off the water, and sow the seeds in drills with the feathers of a goose quill in a good bed of earth. When the plants are about an inch high, draw a little earth up to them with a hoe in order to lengthen their main roots: when they are about three inches high, dig them up and separate them carefully from each other, in order for planting out in the following manner. Prepare a piece of fresh ground by trenching it well, dig up the seedling plants as before directed, and plant them out in the ground thus prepared in such a manner that there be 16 inches between each plant. As they advance in growth, let them receive one or two earthings up, in order to lengthen the main root, and encourage the shoots under ground. By this management potatoes may be brought to a good size in one year.

Southmoulton, July 19.

Honey.

In passing through the garden employed by the American Institute, our attention was directed to some boxes of Honey, of a clear, white and beautiful transparent appearance, such as has seldom been seen in the New York market. It is presented by Messrs. Wilcox & Cone, of West Bloomfield, Ontario county. One of the firm has furnished us with the following statement:—

"Last spring we had not more than 220 swarms, this fall we had over 420; nearly all the young swarms are good to winter over. We have taken from our bees 700 lbs. of box or cap honey; in addition to this, we furnish all in the vicinity where we live, with boxes, showing them how to manage, promising to buy all the honey

that was built in them. This added to our own, made 5,641 lbs. All this was taken away without destroying a single swarm of bees. Near seven-eights of this honey was of the white, such as was exhibited to-day; it arrived in New York market on the 9th of September; nearly two-thirds of it is already sold. We have adopted this plan to make our bees profitable, and not destroy an insect that is such an example of industry.—*New York Gazette.*

Description of the Devon Bull.

"The horn of the bull ought to be neither too low nor too high, tapering at the points, not too thick at the root, and of a yellow waxy color. The eye should be clear, bright and prominent, showing much of the white, and it ought to have around it a circle of variable color, but usually a dark orange. The forehead should be flat, indented and small; for by the smallness of the forehead the purity of the blood is estimated. The cheek should be small, and the muzzle fine: the nose should be of a clear yellow. A black muzzle is disliked, and even a mottled one is objected to by some who pretend to be judges of the true Devon. The nostril should be high and open; the hair curled about the head, and giving, at first appearance, an idea of coarseness which soon wears off The neck should be thick, and that sometimes almost to a fault.

Excepting in the head and neck the form of the bull does not materially differ from that of the ox. The head of the ox is small, very singularly so, relative to the bulk of the animal, yet it has a striking breadth of forehead. It is clean and free from flesh about the jaws. The eye is very prominent, and the animal has a pleasing vivacity of countenance, plainly distinguishing it from the heavy aspect of many other breeds. Its neck is long and thin, admirably adapting it for the collar, and even for the more common and rude yoke.

"The want of the beautifully arched form of the neck, which is seen in the horse, has been considered as a defect in most breeds of cattle. It is accounted one of the characteristics of good cattle that the line of the neck, from the horns to the withers should scarcely deviate from that of the back. In the Devonshire ox, however, there is a peculiar rising of the forehand, reminding us not a little of the blood horse, and essentially connected with the quick and free action by which this breed has ever been distinguished. It has little or no dewlap depending from its throat. The horns are longer than those of the bull, smaller and fine even to the base, and of a lighter color, and sometimes tipped with yellow. The animal is light in the withers; the shoulders a little oblique; the breast deep, and the bosom open and wide, particularly as contrasted with the fineness of the wither. The fore legs are wide apart, looking like pillars that have to support a great weight The point of the shoulder is rarely or never seen. There is no projection of bone as in the horse, but there is a kind of level line running on to the neck.

"These are characteristic and important points. Angular and bony projections are never found on a beast that carries much flesh and fat. The fineness of the withers, the slanting direction of the shoulder and the broad and open breast imply both strength and speed, and aptitude to fatten. A narrow chested animal can never be useful for working or grazing.

"With all the likeness of the Devonshire ox, there is a point about him, disliked in the blood or riding horse, and not always approved in the horse of light draft,—the legs are far under the chest, or rather the breast projects far and wide before the legs. We see the advantae of this in the beast of slow draft, who rarely breaks into a trot, except when he is goaded on in *catching times*, and the division of whose foot secures him from stumbling. The lightness of the other parts of his form, however counterbalances the appearance of heaviness here.

"The legs are straight, at least in the best breeds. If they are in-kneed, or crooked in the fore legs, it argues a deficiency in blood, and incapacity for work; and not only for work, but for grazing too, for they will be hollow behind the withers, a point for which nothing can compensate, because it takes away so much from the place where good flesh and fat should be thickly laid on, and diminishes the capacity of the chest, and the power of creating arterial and nutricious blood.

"The fore arm is particularly large and powerful. It swells out suddenly above the knee, but is soon lost in the substance of the shoulder. Below the knee the bone is small to a very extraordinary degree, indicating a seeming want of strength; but this impression immediately ceases, for the smallness is only in front—it is only in the bone. It is the leg of the blood horse, promising both strength and speed. It may perhaps be objected that the leg is a little too long. It would be so in an animal that is destined only to graze; but this is a working animal, and some length of leg is necesary to get him pleasantly and actively over the ground.

"There is a very trifling fall behind the withers, but no *hollowness*, and the line of the back is straigh from them to the setting on of the tail. If there is any seeming fault in the beast, it is that the sides are a little too flat. It will appear however, that this does not interfere with feeding, while a deep, although somewhat flat chest, is best adapted for speed.

"Not only is the breast broad, and the chest deep, but the two last ribs are particularly bold and prominet, leaving room for the stomach and other parts concerned in digestion to be fully developed. The hips, or huckles, are high, and on a level with the back, whether the beast is fat or lean. The hind quarters, or the space from the huckle to the point of the rump, are particularly long, and well filled up—a point likewise of very considerable importance both for grazing and working. It leaves room for flesh in the most valuable part, and, like the extensive and swelling quarters of the blood horse, indicate much power from behind, connected with strength and speed. This is an improvement quite of modern date. The fulness here, and the swelling out of the thigh below, are of much more consequence than the prominence of fat which is so much admired on the rump of many prize cattle.

"The setting on of the tail is high; it is on a level with the back, rarely much elevated, and never depressed. This is another great point in the blood horse, as connected with the perfection of the hind quarters. The tail itself is long and small, and taper, with a round bunch of hair at the bottom.

"The skin of the Devon, notwithstanding his curly hair, is exceedingly mellow and elastic. Graziers know that there is not a more important point than this. When the skin can be easily raised from the hips, it shows that there is room to set on fat below. The skin is thin rather than thick. Its appearance of thickness arrises from the curly hair with which it is covered, and is curly in proportion to the condition and health of the animal. Good Judges of these cattle speak of these curls as running like little ripples of wind on a pond of water. Some of these cattle have their hair smooth, but then it should be fine and glossy. Those with curled hair are somewhat more hardy, and fatten more kindly. The favorite color is a blood red. This is supposed to indicate purity of breed; but there are many good cattle approaching almost to a chestnut hue, or even a bay brown. If the eye is clear and good, and the skin mellow, the paler colors will bear hard work, and fatten as well as others; but a beast with a pale akin, and hard under the hand, and the eye dark and dead, will be a sluggish worker, and an unprofitable feeder. Those, however, that are of a yellow color, are said to be subject to *sleat* (diarrhœa.)—*Library of Useful Knowledge.*

Leaves of Trees Fodder for Cattle.

A remarkable feature in the Agriculture of France, and in most warm countries, is the use of leaves of trees as food for cattle. Not only are mulberry, olive, poplar, vine and other leaves gathered in autumn, when they begin to change color, and acquire a sweetness of taste; but spray is cut green in July, dried in the sun or in the shade of trees in woods, fagoted, and stocked for winter use. During that season they are given to sheep and cattle like hay; and sometimes boiled with grain or bran, to cows. The astringency of some leaves, as the oak, is esteemed medicinal, especially for sheep.

Sowing Seeds of Garden Vegetables in Autumn.

Many things, which are usually sown in the spring, would be better *sown in the fall;* and especially when we consider how *little time* there is for doing all things in the spring. Parsnips, carrots, beets, onions, and many other seeds may be safely sown in autumn. Cabbages, parsnips, carrots, spinach and onions are sowed to the best advantage in the fall, when it is desirable to get them early the next season. Miller's Gardner's Dictionary says, "to cultivate parsnips, *sow the seed in autumn, soon after they are ripe;* by which means the seed will come early in the following spring, and let the plants get strong before the weeds will grow to injure them. The young plants never materially suffer through the severity of the season"

Cobbett's American Gardener asserts that "early peas would be best sown in the fall, could you have an assurance against *mice.* We all know what a bustle there is to get in *early peas.* If they were sown in the fall they would start up the moment the frost was out of the ground, and would be ten days earlier in bearing, in spite of every effort made by the spring sowers to overtake them. Upon a spot where I sowed peas for seed, last year, some that were left in a lock of haulm at the harvesting, and that lay upon the dry ground till the land was ploughed late in November, came up in the spring the moment the frost was out of the ground; and they were in bloom full *fifteen days* earlier than those sown in the same field, as early as possible in the spring. In some cases it would be a good way to cover the sown ground with *litter*, or with leaves of trees, as soon as the frost has fairly set in; but not before, for if you do it before, the seed may vegetate, and then may be killed by the frost. One object of this fall sowing is to get the work done ready for sping: for at that season you have so many things to do at once. Besides you cannot sow the instant the frost breaks up, for the ground is wet and clammy, unfit to be dug, or touched, or trodden upon, so that here are ten days lost. But the seed, which has lain in the ground all winter, is ready to start the moment the earth is clear of the winter frost, and it is *up* by the time you can get other seed into the ground in a good state.

Fall of the year. In a country where the springs are backward, as in the northern parts of New England, farmers should do all they can in autumn, to diminish or lighten the labors of the following spring, when they will have much work to perform in a short time. Summer dung and composts should be carted out at this season. Fences should be built or repaired, not only to prevent having them to do in the spring, but to keep cattle from injuring the lands with their feet. All the ground should be ploughed in the fall, that is to be seeded the following spring.—Ploughing in autumn is saving labor at a time when teams are most apt to be faint and feeble, and when there is too often a scarcity of food for them. Ploughing in autumn is of great importance in a clay soil, as by exposing it to the frost, the cohesion of the parts is much broken—*Deane.*

But although fall ploughing may be recommended as a general rule, we believe that in some soils it should not be practised. A light, sandy soil, which is naturally too loose for vigorous vegetation, is injured by late ploughing. The frost destroys what little tenacity the land possesses, and reduces it to such a state, that many of its most fertile particles are either swept away by winds or washed away by floods. Such soils should be kept coated and bound together by vegetation as much as possible. No farmer should suffer such land to lie in a bare and finely pulverized state, either in summer or in winter.

COMMUNICATIONS.

Preservation of Grain.

BY W. G.

The great success which has attended the efforts of Mr. Parker of Onondaga county, in perfecting the process of preparing and using his water-proof cement, made from the water-proof lime so abundant in that region; the beauty of his immense stone jugs—for such in fact his cisterns of from ten to one hundred hogsheads are—their impermeability to water, and the facility with which they can be constructed, has induced me to suppose that they can be advantageously applied to another purpose not yet thought of, as we have been able to learn, but which if practicable would be of immense importance to the agriculturists of some sections of our extended country—we mean to the preservation of grain, or, in other words, to the formation of granaries.

It is well known that in the southern states, wheat when grown, is at once assailed by so many insects that destroy it, and by so many other natural causes of decay, principally arising from the great degree of heat and moisture there experienced, that its culture in those sections of country, very favorable to its growth, is quite limited; as experience has shown it impossible, in the ordinary methods, to preserve for any length of time the wheat from insects, or the flour from souring and decay. In the north, these evils are experienced in a less degree, and with proper precautions grain, in a common granary, may be kept for any desirable period. The high temperature exists but for a limited time, and is then counteracted by a dryness of atmosphere, favorable to the preservation of grain, a state of things widely different from those usually prevalent at the south. Still, cases may occur at the north, where it may be advisable and proper to construct granaries on the plan developed by the labors of Mr. Parker.

The plan of preserving grain by seclusion from atmospheric air, a process accomplished by burying it in the ground, is no new thing, especially in southern climates; and is at the present time practiced in many countries of the old world, though in a manner sufficiently rude and barbarous. The grain which is consumed in the Barbary states, or which is exported thence, is in most cases thoroughly dried, and then deposited in cells dug in the earth, or trenches cut in the rock, their sides when used being lined with straw. The same mode is more or less followed in Malta, Spain, Sicily and Italy. In Spain, during the Peninsular war, the French armies in their marches suffered not a little from the peasantry hiding their grain in this way; and Quintius Curtius, in his history of the campaigns of Alexander, relates that that conqueror's army suffered greatly on the banks of the Oxus, during his Indian expedition, because the inhabitants of the country preserved their corn in subterranean pits, the situation of which was known only to those who made them. Lieut. Burnes, in his late travels in the same region, incidentally confirms most of these statements of the historian.

Some of the eastern nations, particularly the Chinese, preserve their grain in pits cut out of rock, or dug in a dry hard soil. The pits are lined with straw, and the grain before being put into them is thoroughly dried. The holes are covered with chaff and straw, and this with a bed of earth well beat down, to prevent the penetration of water. Similar excavations are now frequently found near the site of old Indian villages, situated in the magnificent prairies of the west. Their situation is generally on the nearest elevated ground, if the earth of which it is composed is suitable for the purpose. Some of these pits bear marks of having been used for a great length of time; and the singular fact of their being so used by all nations in the first stages of society, is another proof that the mind of man naturally flows in the same channel, and that under the same circumstances, he resorts to the same modes of preservation, and subsistence.

Formerly when armies marched, the preparations for furnishing them with bread were obliged to be made in some cases long before hand, as once in an enemy's country no reliance could be placed onany thing except the prepared supplies. Hence the immense excavations in the rock at Amboise, on the river Loire in France, used by Julius Cæsar in his Gallic and Grecian wars, and to this day popularly known as Cæsar's granaries. A curious instance of this providing a supply of grain before hand, and the method of keeping it, occurs in the history of the expedition of St. Louis of France to Palestine, in 1248. "When we came to Cyprus the king was already there, and we found great abundance of stores collected by him. The cellars of the king were stocked with great casks of wine, bought two years before the king's arrival. The wheat and the barley they had put into heaps in the midst of the fields, and these appeared like mountains, for the rain had moistened the grain for a long time, and caused it to germinate on the outside, so that nothing was seen but the green herb. When this outer crust was removed from the heaps of grain, the wheat and barley were found as fresh as if but now piled up."

A passage furnishing an illustration of the mode of preserving grain in Egypt in the days of Joseph, may be found in Prosper Alpinus. He says, not far from Cairo there was a high wall built, enclosing a large space of ground, which was filled every six or seven years with large piles of wheat. It rarely rains in Egypt, but the abundant dews of the night softened the outer portions of the grain, and caused it to germinate, but in a short time the sun dried the young shoots, which then formed a hard covering to the mass, and did not permit air or moisture to penetrate it. In this way the superabundant crops of the seven fruitful years in the time of the Hebrew governor were undoubtedly secured. During the reign of Napoleon, a series of experiments were made under the supervision of Count Dejeau on the preservation of wheat and flour, by placing it in lead vessels hermetically closed by soldering the joints. Flour and wheat full of weevils were enclosed in this way, and when they were opened at the end of a year, no injury had been done by the insects—they were all either dead, or in a state of torpor, and the meal was perfectly fresh and sweet. Those who wish to see these and other modes of preservation discussed, may consult Chaptal on the preservation of fruits by seclusion.

While Bonaparte was in Palestine, prosecuting the siege of Acre, he directed an immense quantity of grain to be collected in open granaries at Tiberias, on the sea of Galilee, preparatory to his further movements in the east. He was repulsed from Acre, and before his retreat to Egypt, gave directions that these magazines should be destroyed, a command fulfilled to the letter. Two years afterwards, the celebrated traveler Doctor D. Clarke was at Tiberias, and visited the spots where the grain was consumed. The piles presented immense masses of charcoal, the grains whole, and so slow had been the combustion, that on thrusting a stick to the depth of a few feet into the heap, it immediately took fire.

If the preservation of wheat could be effected in the manner we have suggested, by burying it in water proof pits, or granaries under ground, we are confident an immense benefit would accrue to the south from their introduction. That such would be the result, we think perfectly evident for these two reasons:—in the first place, grain deposited in such cisterns would be preserved from the high temperature which, continued for so long time as it prevails at the south, will cause wheat or flour to sour and become worthless, an effect caused by the partial decomposition of the gluten so abundant in wheat;—and in the second place, by securing it from the depredations and ravages of the weevil. Cisterns or pits constructed with the water-proof lime of the north are easily rendered air tight. When these are filled with grain, the natural consequence is, the disengagement of carbonic gas, which fills the reservoir as completely as would water. Carefully closed and made air tight, this gas cannot escape, and the grain remains as it were buried in an atmosphere of its own formation. Few animals or insects can live but a few minutes in carbonic gas, as the fatal accidents constantly occurring in wells and vats where this air exists fully proves; or if they can exist in a torpid state, their presence can produce no injury. This fact was satisfactorily demonstrated in France, and hence grain so deposited would be secured from the weevil, and all other insect depredators.

We trust some of our farming friends at the south will make the experiment, if on further examination it should be deemed advisable, as the cost will be but trifling, and the advantages of the method may be great. W. G.

Mince Pies.

We take it for granted the reader is a lover of mince pies—the genuine, juicy, delicious, high flavored article, compounded of the best pieces of beef and fine tasted apples—not such pies as may be purchased in our cities, unless rumour lies, during the raging of the dog-killing star; and if he is a friend to the real thing, he will undoubtedly be glad to learn how he may have them in prime order, when he pleases, the year round.

To do this, nothing more is necessary than to provide yourself with a stone jar, not too wide mouthed, and large enough to contain the quantity of meat you wish to preserve. Prepare your materials in the usual manner, always keeping steadily in mind, that if you select meat fit for

nothing else, for making your pies, your pies when made will be fit for nothing but to give the pigs. Do not be covetous of your good things in making pies; they should be an aggregate of almost every thing desirable, that can be made by two crusts into a body corporate. When prepared in this manner for use, instead of baking them, fill your stone jar with the mince *meat*, beat or pack it down as closely as possible, and when filled within about three inches of the top, add no more meat, but fill the jar with molasses of the thickest best kind that can be procured. Tie a clean cloth over the mouth of the jar, and set it away in some cool dry place for use. It may be necessary to add a little molasses once or twice, though very sparingly. If you wish for a mess of mince pies at such seasons of the year as without such preserved mince would be inconvenient or impossible, all you have to do is to turn off your molasses from the jar, and take out as much as may be necessary for the time, smoothing the surface of the mince in the jar, and returning the molasses as before. It will be understood that the prepared meat is alone to be kept in this way; the apples are to be added when the meat is wanted for cooking.

This mode of keeping mince-meat is no untried project. We have tested it thoroughly, and know it will succeed admirably. None need therefore to treat it as a mere visionary theory, but consider it an established FACT.

Skinless Oats, &c.

BY W.

In regard to the skinless oats, which have in some places been considered as a desideratum with the farmer, I have just to say that I have made a small experiment the present year, by sowing one pound of seed, (procured at Baltimore,) on a warm and rich soil, inclining to a sandy texture, very good for the common oat of our country, and by side of the latter, which was a good crop, computed at fifty bushels per acre, while the former, sown on five rods of ground, produced not more than one peck of seed. I think one half the heads were destroyed by smut, and although the good heads appeared large and well filled, yet when examined, were found to contain much fewer grains, and they incomparably smaller than the common oats. I incline however to give it another trial on a clayey soil, and if it does not succeed better, consign it to the "chicken coop."

A small quantity of early Angus was sown contiguous to the above, and succeeded well—objectionable only on account of ripening later, and growing taller than the common kind, which produces a greater length of straw with us than is desirable. I think it will well repay the farmer for its culture.

Mangel Wurtzel.

I have just gathered my beets, which I had planted on thirty rods of ground; by weighing the produce of a part of the ground, I ascertained the product to be, when divested of their leaves, above ten thousand pounds, supposing the row measured to be an average, though I chose it for the best, at which rate it would give 27 tons on an acre. The mode of culture was, ploughing early in the spring a piece of ground which had been planted to potatoes last year. About the 15th of 5th mo. it was furrowed out 3 feet feet apart—say 10 rows on two rods wide—and in the furrows five wagon loads of horse-stable manure was spread evenly along, and covered with two furrows, making a ridge, which was slightly leveled down with a rake. The holes for the seeds were made by a cogged wheel attached to a wheel-barrow, in such a manner as to place the wheel six inches apart. The plants were thinned very early, and the small weeds which had then sprung up destroyed, or scraped out by a small hand hoe, narrow enough to use freely among the young plants; they were afterwards worked three times through with a cultivator, and had no further hoeing.

I think the product would have been greater if the rows had been 2½ feet apart, and 10 inches in the row.

My ruta baga has not succeeded well; they were sown on a good soil without manure; they are yet of small size. Manure is the main principle of root culture.

Liming on the Surface.

Two years ago last spring, I spread 150 bushels of lime on 3 acres, which had previously been in grass, (clover and timothy,) 3 years, and had produced each year, by computation, about two tons of hay per acre; the consequence was, notwithstanding the long time it had laid since ploughing, the grass crop was, the two ensuing seasons, near 50 per cent. better. It is now in corn, not yet gathered, but the crop is very fine.

The weather has been very uncomfortable for the season; the frost visited us earlier than usual, but our summer crops were but little injured; potatoes suffered the most, though the crop is generally good. The last two weeks have been almost "winter in its roughest mood," with several small snows, nearly two inches in depth. W.

Flushing, Ohio, 10th mo. 28, 1836.

Garden Seeds.

BY H. G. W.

MR. TUCKER—I have considered it a duty to myself and neighbors, to address you on the subject of garden seeds, especially since some of us have suffered disappointment in the kinds and quality of some produced and sold by noted seedsmen.

I last spring purchased a stock of vegetable seeds from a box purporting to have been produced at the seed garden in Lyons, Wayne co. I think called the "Horticultural Garden." In that lot of seeds was a paper labelled "*Savoy Cabbage*," and as near as I can recollect, "*Green Globe Savoy*." I generally raise a variety of cabbage, and have usually found the seeds from that garden genuine. I planted the seeds of the paper above mentioned, and when I supposed the plants were sufficiently large to transplant, found on examination that they were not cabbages, at least I thought they were not, but some species of turnep. I regretted it, as the season was advanced too far to sow winter cabbage; but in order to see what might come of them, I transplanted them about 16 or 18 inches apart to the number perhaps of one hundred plants. Among that number, three or four seemed to make some bottom, and produce something of the turnep kind, of a yellowish cast, to which I cannot give a distinctive name. They are small and hard. All the other plants have run up somewhat in the manner of a drum head cabbage stalk, though some of them much higher, even to near three feet, with leaves resembling ruta baga leaves, and with no bottom, except roots in the manner of cabbages. The ground was good, and the cultivation such as to have ensured at least 80 good heads of cabbage, if the seeds had been genuine. The loss of labor and the use of ground is not inconsiderable, besides the disappointment in failing to raise that desirable cabbage the *Savoy*.

Some of my neighbors I find have been deceived in the same way by planting that kind of seed from the same box. The production, whatever it is, is so nearly worthless as to be no better than the same quantity of the common turnep tops.

I write this not to injure the producer of the seeds, for I have been partial towards his seeds, but so that you may give some hints to seedsmen of caution in raising and preparing seed. There are other complaints of the same nature to make, but this will suffice.

I have been of the opinion, that the spurious seeds above mentioned were raised perhaps from cabbages, but incautiously contiguous to some species of turnep, or vice versa, and a union of the pollen, which was matured simultaneously, produced the worthless mongrel. As this is a matter beyond my experience, I only venture the suggestion, and if others can state any such result within their knowledge, I should be glad to have it made public. We know that cabbages will thus mix, but whether cabbages and turneps will do the same is not known to me. It is a matter that should be strictly attended to by seedsmen, for he who loves *cold slaw* and *sour crout* as well as I do, cannot bear many such disappointments. Yours, &c. H. G. W.

Chittenango, Oct. 29, 1836.

The Effect of Soot on Wheat.

I last week had an opportunity afforded me by a friend, who farms on a dry and inferior soil, of witnessing the effect of the application of soot on young wheat in the spring. The field to which I now allude, has been partly dressed over at the rate of thirty bushels of soot to the acre, and it is quite astonishing to see the benefit that it has afforded to the crop of wheat. Nothing can be more conclusive as to the virtue of this description of dressing, than the experiment which I am now speaking of. The field was sown with wheat out of a clover lay, without any manuring being laid on, the whole of the piece having been previously to this year farmed in an exactly similar manner. The field perhaps is seven acres, and about four acres (the poorest part of the enclosure) were selected for sowing the soot on, the remaining three acres not having any soot applied. I have no doubt but that at harvest there will be eight bushels more on an acre on the part that was sooted, than there will be on the part to which no soot was applied. The cost of the soot was sixpence a bushel, being at the rate of fifteen shillings an acre for thirty bushels. The whole of the expense attending the dressing will not exceed twenty shillings per acre, the increase of the value of an acre of wheat will be forty-eight shillings, or eight bushels of wheat at six shillings a bushel, thus leaving a nett profit of twenty-eight shillings per acre, after deducting the cost and expenses of the soot; and as to any additional labor brought about by an extra crop, such as reaping, threshing, harvesting, &c. the increased quantity of straw will entirely liquidate.—*Farmers' Magazine.*

Making Butter in Winter.

Although, as a general ru'e, it may not be the best of economy to attempt to make much butter in winter, yet when a farmer has good cows, good hay and roots, &c. and no market near for his milk, he may as well, perhaps better, make it into butter, than apply it to any other use. But there is a difficulty in making butter in cold weather, which, to those who do not understand the philosophy of butter making, is apt to cause the expense to exceed the profits, if not to cause a total failure in the attempt to obtain butter from cream or milk in the winter season.

Some degree of warmth is as necessary to make butter as it is to cause that fermentation in the juice of apples which changes it into cider, or causes it to *work* as the phrase is; and in process of time, under certain circumstances, to change cider to vinegar. Butter is formed by slightly souring and stirring the cream from which it is churned. But this souring will not take place as long as the cream remains nearly at the freezing point. If you make your cream warm enough, and keep it warm long enough, that is till it begins to change, you may, if your cows are well fed, make butter as well in cold as in warm weather. This may be done by keeping your dairy room warm by a stove or some other means, or by setting metal milk-pans in vessels of wood, and surrounding them with hot water, and renewing the hot water, if occasion may require, till the milk or cream is slightly soured.

Arthur Young, in his notices of Epping dairies, where the best English butter is made, states that "the dairy maids are particularly attentive to one circumstance, that there must be a certain proportion of *sour* in the cream, either natural or artificial, or they cannot ensure a good churning of butter. Some keep a little of the old cream for that purpose; others use a little rennet; and some a little lemon juice."

A letter from R. Smith to J. H. Powel, published in Memoirs of the Penn. Agr. Society, contains the following passage:

"Since the month of January, my dairy people have been in the practice of always placing the pans, containing the milk, in water simmering hot. The oily parts which constitute the cream, are by such heat separated from the other ingredients; and then from their specific lightness, they of course ascend to the top in the form of cream. Cream is thus obtained during the coldest weather in winter, in the course of about twelve hours after the milk has been taken from the cows. And the operation of churning such cream never exceeds twenty-five minutes. The milk pans remain in hot water about thirty minutes. The butter has invariably been of a fine flavor, and of a beautiful yellow color; and in the nature of things it never can be otherwise, unless the dairy woman should be utterly ignorant of the art of making sweet butter."

Another mode of making butter in winter has been practised by E. H. Derby, Esq., of Salem, Mass., and has been by him thus described:

"The milk, when taken from the cow, is immediately strained into earthen pans, and set in the coldest part of the house; as soon as the frost begins to operate, a separation takes place; the cream rises in a thick paste to the top, and leaves the milk without a particle of cream frozen in the pan. The cream is not so hard but that it can be easily scraped off with a spoon, down to the solid ice; it is then set aside until a sufficient quantity is collected for a churning, when it is warmed just so much as to thaw the cream, and sufficiently to put into the churn: I have never known it require more than five minutes to convert cream into butter after the churning has commenced.

"All the butter that was consumed in my family the last winter, has been made in this way, and I think I never had finer. I ought to state that I think this method injurious to the cream for certain purposes; such for instance as whip syllabub, as my domestics found after the cream was mixed with other ingredients, that the least agitation brought it to butter." *

* See N. E. Farmer, vol. iii p. 253.

Butter made from Scalded Cream. Another mode of making butter recommended in English publications is as follows:

"As soon as the milk is taken from the cow, let it be placed on a steady wood fire, free as possible from smoke, and scalded for thirty minutes—particular care must be taken not to allow it to boil. It must then be placed in a cool situation, and on the following day a think rich cream will appear on the surface of the milk, (which is excellent for dessert purposes.) This may be taken off, and made into butter in the ordinary way." It is said that a greater quantity of butter, and a better quality, can be made by this than by the common modes.

Louden has the following remarks on this subject:

"As winter butter is mostly pale or white, and at the same time of a poorer quality than that made during the summer months, the idea of excellence has been associated with the yellow color; hence various articles have been employed in order to impart this color; those most generally used, and certainly the most wholesome, are the juice of the carrot, and of the flowers of the marigold, carefully pressed and strained through a linen cloth. A small quantity of the juice, (and the requisite proportion is soon ascertained by experience,) is diluted with a little cream, and this mixture is added to the rest of the cream, when put into the churn. So small a quantity of the coloring matter unites with the butter that it never imparts to it any particular taste."—*New England Farmer.*

From the Library of Useful Knowledge.

Proper Form and Shape of Cattle.

"Whatever be the breed, there are certain conformations which are indispensable to the thriving and value of the ox and cow. When we have a clear idea of these we shall be able more easily to form an accurate judgment of the breeds of the different countries as they pass before us. If there is one part of the frame, the form of which, more than that of any other, renders the animal valuable, it is the chest. There must be room enough for the heart to beat, and the lungs to play, or sufficient blood for the purposes of nutriment and of strength will not be circulated; nor will it thoroughly undergo that vital change which is essential to the proper discharge of every function. We look, therefore first of all, to the wide and deep girth about the heart and lungs. We must have both: the proportion in which the one or the other may preponderate, will depend on the service we require from the animal; we can excuse a slight degree of flatness of the sides, for he will be lighter in the forehand, and more active; but the grazier must have width as well as depth. And not only about the heart and lungs, but over the whole ribs, must we have length and roundness; the *hooped*, as well as the deep barrel, is essential; there must be room for the capacious paunch, room for the materials from which the blood is to be provided. The beast should also be ribbed home; there should be little space between the ribs and the hips. This seems to be indispensable in the ox, as it regards a good healthy constitution, and a propensity to fatten; but a largeness and dropping of the belly is excusable in the cow, or rather, notwithstanding it diminishes the beauty of the animal, it leaves room for the udder; and if it is also accomplished by swelling milkveins, it generally indicates her value in the dairy.

"The roundness and depth of the barrel, however, is most advantageous in proportion as it is found behind the point of the elbow, more than between the shoulders and legs; or low down between the legs, rather than upwards towards the withers; for it diminishes the heaviness before, and the comparative bulk of the coarse parts of the animal, which is always a very great consideration.

"The loins should be wide: of this there can be no doubt, for they are the prime parts; they should seem to extend far along the back: and although the belly should not hang down, the flanks should be round and deep. Of the hips it s superfluous to say that, without being ragged, they should be large; round rather than wide, and presenting, when handled, plenty of muscle and fat The thighs should be round and long close together when viewed from behind, and the farther down they continue to be so the better. The legs short, varying like other parts according to the destination of the animal; and decidedly short, for there is an almost inseparable connection between length of leg and lightness of carcase, and shortness of leg and propensity to fatten. The bones of the legs, and they only being taken as a sample of the boney structure of the frame generally, should be small, but not too small—small enough for the well known accompaniment,—a propensity to fatten—small enough to please the consumer; but not so small as to indicate delicacy of constitution, and liability to disease.

"Last of all the hide—the most important thing of all—thin, but not so thin as to indicate that the animal can endure no hardship; moveable, mellow, but not too loose, and particularly well covered with fine soft hair"

From the Western Farmer.

On Transplanting.

There is no operation more important to the agriculturist than that of planting out fruit trees; because, if properly performed, the benefits of the operation are for himself and for his posterity. Hence the damage of introducing improper practices, founded upon unsound principles in planting.

Having observed in your November number of the Western Farmer, some "Notes on Transplanting," copied from the New York Farmer, recommending the planting out of trees without lopping off any part of the top or branches—and apprehending that the reasoning in favor of that practice is incorrect, and *might* mislead, to their injury, the confiding and inexperienced, I beg leave to offer a few observations on the subject.

The author of those "Notes," it appears to me, reasons badly, when he draws an argument in favor of his new theory, from the fact of the greater succecs in planting a young tree "with its limbs and roots entire," than "the larger one with the system of decapitation practised upon it." He infers that the difference arises from the amputation of the branches—whereas it proceeds from the greater loss of the *roots*, in digging up the larger, than the young tree. In removing a young plant, it is quite practicable to retain a much larger proportion of the extremities of the small fibrous roots, adapted to the introsusception of the plant, than of a large tree. There can be no doubt that the roots are more essentially the life sustaining members of plants than the branches—therefore, when a tree (small or great) is removed, the chance of its living depends more upon retaining a due proportion of its most essential members.

The soundness of theories may sometimes be tested by pushing the principles on which they rest to their extremes. Let us see whether the theory here controverted can stand this test.—Plant a young tree with its branches and roots entire. It will live—cut off a branch, it will live—cut off several, it will still live—nay, cut off the whole, leaving only the stem, and it will not only survive, as a thousand instances have proved, but being sustained by the roots, it will put out new branches and will flourish.

Plant another tree with its branches and roots entire—try the same process of amputation on the roots, and ere you reach the last root, the branches will wither, and the tree will decline and die.

An argument in favor of the new theory is attempted to be founded on a supposed analogy between vegetable aud animal life. "But (says its author,) would any person in his senses think of cutting off a child's arm, because it had the misfortune to lose its foot?" Certainly the author of the notes, in this question, loses sight entirely of the supposed analogy. The food of an animal is not constituted an organ to receive through its pores nourishment for the sustenance of the body, as the roots are of a tree. The stomach of an animal is this organ. Now let us

suppose the stomach to be wounded or impaired, so as not to be able to perform adequately the functions of receiving, preparing, and furnishing the body a due portion of food. What is the consequence? Why, by an invariable law of nature, the bulk of substance to be supported must be reduced, the body and limbs fall away and dwindle, sometimes almost to a skeleton. But when the stomach recovers its tone, and performs properly its functions, then the body and limbs begin to recover, and finally assume their wonted size and fullness. So when the roots of a tree have been reduced or impaired, to a degree which leaves them incapable of supplying adequate nourishment for the whole tree, body and limbs, the same law of nature ordains, that a portion of the substance to be supported, must be reduced--the limbs wither, dry, and decay: and who ever yet saw a dry dead twig, restored so as to vegetate?

As then, in the cases supposed, art is *incapable* of reducing the bulk of the animal, but nature is competent both to reduce and restore—as art *is* capable of reducing the bulk of the tree, leaving only as much as can be supported by the appendant root,--and as reduction, of the bulk to be supported, is indicated in both cases when the sustaining organs are impaired, it would seem that the analogy is clearly in favor of trimming off a portion of the limbs, so as to leave the top of the tree proportioned to the remaining root.

But further—is not this new theory entirely at war with the system of pruning? done for the double purpose of preserving the tree, and improving the fruit, a system which has stood the test of ages, and has the sanction of experience, --the best guide to young agriculturists.

But facts are the best arguments in these matters; about 30 years ago, I transplanted a pear tree into my garden. It was seven inches through, dug up in December in freezing weather. To save it I trimmed off most of the top, so much as to admit of its being carried into a cellar to preserve it for the night from the frost. Next day it was carried a mile and planted. It is yet a good bearing tree. About ten years past I transplanted a bearing Junetting apple tree more than half grown, cutting off most of the top. This year it bore the best and largest apples of any Junetting tree in orchard.

Some four or five years past, a neighbour of mine transplanted from the forest to his yard a very uncommon and beautiful tree, bearing berries--desirous of saving the top, he trimmed off none, and the tree died.

Such facts could be advanced without number.

Provender for Cattle.

We know not how we can better occupy a column than by admonishing our brother farmers of the necessity of carefully husbanding their provender for the coming winter: for, from all accounts which reach us from every quarter of our immense country, a great scarcity prevails, and as the winter may be said to have set in early, a long period of feeding may be anticipated. And while we recommend *economy*, we would respectfully suggest the propriety of *cutting* all long feed. The labor and expense of reducing hay, fodder, and straw, for general feeding, when compared with the great saving, should not be considered in any other light than that of just *economy*; for, without question, fully one-third less will answer when so fed out. Let racks be made as they may, and let horses and cattle go to their eating with what appetites they may, it is an incontrovertible fact, that at least one-third of the provender given them is thus wasted.

If we were called upon to express an opinion upon the subject, we would say—that neither oats nor corn should be given to horses, cattle or hogs, without its being first reduced to something like a *flour-state;* for by such reduction one-third less in weight would answer, and to those who feed with *corn* we would observe, that the *cob* as well as the *kernel* should be passed through a *crusher*. By this process fully *one half* would be saved, if the *mass* be submitted to the operation steaming.—*Farmer & Gardener*·

Gun Powder.

Every farmer should keep on hand a supply of this noise-making, mischief-doing, life-distroying, life preserving compound, not to shoot his neighbors nor his neighbor's horses, nor solely for the purpose of killing crows or blasting rocks; but the lives of animals that are choaked with apples, potatoes, &c., may be saved with it by observing the following RECIPE.

Confine the animal afflicted in any way so that the head can be raised and the mouth opened—then take out the tongue and put a small quantity of gun powder down the throat. It will cause the animal to cough violently and throw out the obstruction in the passage. The relief will be immediate.

A neighbor of mine saved a cow a few days since in the same manner. Try it, and depend upon it it will be more successful than in following the recipe of him of the Comic Almanac for catching rabbits. —*Maine Farmer.*

The way they raise Potatoes down East.

Plough the land to a good depth, make it fine and level with a harrow or cultivator, and furrow about four inches deep, taking pains that the furrows are straight; then drop the potatoes in the furrows ten or twelve inches apart and cover them by turning two light furrows together over them.—When the plants have grown to the height of an inch or two, take a small horse harrow and let it be drawn exactly upon the rows, taking care to carry round the harrow at the ends, or the potatoes will be rooted up. If the harrow be about three feet wide at the hinder part, the surface of the ground will be stirred and left nearly leavel. After the plants have got up about six inches high, use a cultivator between the rows, and no more labor is necessary till digging time.

I pursued this plan in raising the long reds this year. When I had dug forty bushels, thinking the yield pretty good, I paced the ground on which they grew and made it eighteen square rods; a more accurate measure gave sixteen. One third of an acre produced 140 bushels. When I commenced digging the surface was nearly level, and none of the potatoes grew out of the ground.—What is the use in hilling potatoes?—*Ib.*

Fruit Trees.

When farmers raise their own fruit trees from the seed (as they will in time if they rightly comprehend their own interest) it is never worth while to graft them in the nursery. Let them grow till you can ascertain what kind of fruit they will naturally produce. The famous Baldwin, or Pecker apple was a come-by-chance. Had the original tree been cut off and grafted near the ground, according to the usual proceedings in nurseries, the public could never been have benefited by that valuable fruit. Mr. Upham of Newtown, gave us an apple which grew on a tree spontaneously produced on his premises, which has as fine a flavor as any apples we have tasted this season. An experienced nurseryman assures us that the best way to manage with apple seeds intended for sowing is to *keep them in the fruit* through the winter, and sow them in the spring.

The Manufacture of Silk.

A very important improvement has been made in the silk loom at Manchester, which is likely to operate very favorably upon the manufacture of this valuable article of trade, and may be the means of transferring a very large portion of it from France and Italy to this country. It is now perfectly clear that steam power may be applied with the greatest advantage to the silk loom, which has heretofore been worked by hand only; and a young girl may weave, with this improvement, as much silk in a day as can be by two women upon the present plan. The new loom occupies but little more than half the space required by the one in common use, as all the apparatus connected with the weights is removed, and a spring substituted, which performs the work with much greater precision than can be wrought by weights.—*Eng. Paper.*

New Discovery.

We have seen this week at Leeds, a specimen of bleached flax, prepared by Mr. Harwood, a chemist of York, which appears to us as presenting a decided improvement in the manufacture of that article. It has created a great sensation among the manufacturers, and has been taken for silk. It is capable of being manufactured into the finest thread for the construction of veils, lace, cambric, and will supersede those articles of French manufacture. The texture is most beautiful—we never saw any thing equal to it; and we have no doubt that, if properly brought into notice, the discovery will prove a national benefit, and introduce quite a revolution in those articles of trade.—*Doncaster (Eng.) Chronicle.*

Economy in Linen Washing.

After many experiments made by myself and others, I find that pipe clay, dissolved among the water employed in washing, gives the dirtiest linen the appearance of having been bleached, and cleanses them thoroughly with about half the labor, and fully a saving of one fourth the soap. The method adopted, was to dissolve a little of the pipe-clay among the warm water in a washing tub, or to rub a little of it together with the soap on the articles to be washed. The process was repeated as often as required, until the articles washed was made thoroughly clean. All who tried the experiment, have agreed that the saving of soap and labor is great; and that the clothes are improved in color equally as if they were bleached. The peculiar advantage of employing this article with the soap is, that it gives the hardest of water almost the softness of rain water.—*Dundee paper.*

Economy in Fuel.

The following suggestion in reference to a saving in coal, is from the Philadelphia Gazette:

"There is a prodigious waste of coal in this city, occasioned by the width of the opening in our grates, by which a large portion of the heat escapes up the chimney. The best remedy is a register, so contrived as to diminish the draft after the fire is ignited. A simple bar of iron will answer the purpose of diminishing the aperture, and any one who will take the trouble of trying the experiment, will be astonished at the additional heat thrown out into the room, by one of ordinary thickness. We speak from experience. A bar of iron that will cost 25 cents, will produce twenty per cent more heat."

A GOOD YIELD.—Mr. Ebenezer Robbins, of Newbury, raised this season a bushel of superior potatoes, from the cuttings of one potatoe.

100,000 White Italian Mulberry Trees,

OF one to four year's growth, for sale at Gasport, Niagara co. by J. TIMERMAN.

N. B. Orders promptly attended to, and trees carefully packed and forwarded to any part of the states.

Royalton Center, Nov. 15, 1836. nov 19-ftju

GARDENER WANTED.

WANTED, a person well qualified as a Gardener. He must understand his business thoroughly. If he possesses knowledge of Green House Plants and their management, it will be an additional recommendation. Such an one, who can bring good recommendations, will hear of a good and perminent situation, by addressing (*post paid*)

JOHN A. LASELL,
nov12 Columbus, Ohio.

Sheep.

SAXONY and MERINO BUCKS for sale. Inquire at the City Mills, or at Brighton of Porter Taylor.

Rochester, Oct. 10, 1836. oct 15-f3t

20,000 GENUINE Morus multicaulis, or Chinese Mulberrry, of one and two years' growth, by the dozen, hundred or thousand.

Also—30,000 White *Mulberry*, of one and two eyars' growth—for sale by ASA ROWE.

Horticulture.

There are men among us, who look upon the cultivation of flowers with perfect contempt. They can see no utility in this occupation, and look upon the amateur florist as a lack-a-daisical, sentimental character, more fit to write sonnets and to read novels, than to act efficiently in the business of life. To such, the fragrance of the rose, the tints of the lilly, and the delicate formation of the violet, are forever lost: an avenue to pleasure open to others, is to them completely closed; a sense, which to others is the source of much pleasure, is denied them; the light of beauty radiating from each blossom, is shut out from their minds—for, though the form and substance of creation be admitted, its soul—its expression, never reaches them.

Such claim to be matter-of-fact men—utilitarians—the most useful members of society; they believe that they have great duties to discharge, and have no time to spare to examine matters of small moment. Flowers, they admit, are *pretty things*, fitted to please the idle—pretty things, indeed, but mere toys for the young and romantic—they, forsooth, have occupations of more importance than to multiply and increase such trifles; and from their eminence, they look down with contempt upon the grown-up man who wastes his valuable time in the cultivation of these insignificant objects.

They forget that this world is not a mere matter-of-fact world; they overlook the truth that the Deity, in providing fruit and grain, has not been unmindful of the blossom and the foliage He stayed not his hand at mere utility as regards animal life; he bounded not his power to the production of food and raiment; he ministered not merely to the actual wants of life, but clad the fields in verdant green, tinged the fruit with its golden hue and added a surpassing beauty to its foliage and flower. Shall we eat and drink and forget His ministration to our moral taste?

No one was ever intended for a mere business man—to travel, as in a bark-mill, in one dull, and dreary round—day in and day out—month in and month out—year in and year out—to exert every faculty, in the business of life. Men are not created as machines, for the production of a required amount of useful commodity. They have more to do, than to earn their bread, and to eat it; more to accomplish, than to strive for a high station, and to fill it. Man has a moral nature to be strengthened and educated; he has a susceptibility of soul to be touched and excited: and this is most quickly and easily accomplished, by an attention and constant reference to the works of Him who has left, wherever his hands has wrought, the marks and types of those attributes, which warm and purify and exalt the heart. Without this moral culture, man is an animal only, as unlike the being he should be, as the mere grain of wheat, fitted to sustain life, is unlike the waving corn, in all its richness and lovliness, as it covers the mountain side.

Why is it, that those who enter upon the examination of the works of nature, in any of her various channels and departments, become so enthusiastic in the research? Why does their ardor constantly and regularly increase with the increase of their knowledge? Read the lives of eminent naturalists, look at the zeal manifested around you by all who have entered into such studies. It does not arise from mere increase of intellectual power, as affording valuable results to society; for duty here is often discharged from a sense of duty, without any ardor of feeling. It is not the mere force of habit; for habit is more like the chain which binds one to a given course, than wings to fly with to objects we love. It is because there is natural taste in every man, which, when gratified, is strengthened and quickened—a taste for the magnificent and beautiful objects in creation, which can never be satisfied, but which carries us onward to our researches; an appetite which grows with that it feeds upon.

It matters not what part of nature we explore; it matters not whether we examine the earth, look to the monster of the deep, or seek the shells of the beach; whether we look to the animal life or the vegetative process. The heavy mammoth, the insect floating in the air, the rugged mountain, the bright crystal of its bosom, the lofty tree, and the simple flower at its foot, afford the same result; they each read to us the same lesson. The paths open before us are numerous, yet they all lead to the presence of a God, sustaining and beautifying the creation he has formed; and the florist in the path he has chosen, will find at each step of his progress, distinct traces of the goodness of God, in thus providing so beautifully for the taste he has imparted; for not a flower expands itself, not a blossom opens its leaves, but speak to him in language, which, if attended to, will make him a better and happier man.—*Portsmouth Paper.*

Fashions in Flowers.

There is a fashion in every thing. There have been fashions in medicines, education, the fine arts, diet, nothing has escaped this irresistible invader. Art and nature both have been made to yield to its sway, and whenever fashion dictates, it is surprising how soon all the principles of beauty and of taste conform to its rules.

There has been among other fashions a fashion in flowers. Among the leaders in its circle of taste and refinement, some one flower has been predominant for a time, its possession sought, and its cultivation promoted.

The tulip has had its day of glory. In the day of its ascendancy thousands of pounds were given for a single flower of a rare variety, and the mania of purchasing tulips was equal to the mania of purchasing lands which pervades our times. The Hyacinth had its day and has always been a quiet family favorite. The Rose, the charming, voluptuous fragrant rose, claimed the sceptre, and governed for a time, the idolized queen of every blosom. A monarch of so much grace and loveliness it was found difficult to depose, and thousands despite the irresistibility of fashion assert her claims to the ascendancy.

The Dahlia was announced—a new flower, tall and elegant in its bearing, with its slender and curving stalk, bearing its beautiful and regular crown of rich and ever-to-be-varied tint. The new candidate was seized upon and carried by acclamation. It became an object of unceasing assiduity with florists, and was adopted as the pride of the boudoir and the garden.

The Dahlia has held its ascendancy for seasons; and every year seems to develope new varieties, and give additional richness to its tints. Every skillful gardener has had the satisfaction of giving name to some new variety; and although the Dahlia is only to be seen in its full glory, in its natural and unshorn state, where it presides in such gardens as Prince's and Maynard's, yet those who would know its capabilities of improvement and variation, should attend such an exhibition as has just closed in New-York—"The Annual Exhibition of Dahlias of the New-York Horticultural Society."

Yes, the Dahlias has its annual exhibitions, and they are beautiful and "highly interesting." Not only fashion, but true taste declares it so to be. And why should not the rose, the tulip, and other of Nature's most wonderful and charming creations, have their "exhibitions." Why should there not be a general exhibition of the infinite variety of flowers which might be brought together, to give a glow of pleasure to minds (and what *mind* is not) alive to the value of these gifts of the Creator. We should like a general fashion, and flowers and a pure unsophisticated love for their intimate beauties better than any particular inclination toward the lead of fashion; and while we give the beautiful and graceful, though adornless Dahlia, our full tribute and admiration, yet we are aware of many a simple beauty occupying some retired corner of the garden, which only requires a kind hand to bring it forward, introduce it, and fairly exhibit its features, to render it no contemptible rival.—*Long Island Star.*

Peach Trees.

Mr. William Phillips, of Pennsylvania, has derived great benefit from the application of air slacked, old effete lime to peach trees, the effects according to his account have been very great He puts about a peck of lime to each tree; he thinks it useful as a preservative against the insect so fatal to these trees. We have then two applications recommended, unleached ashes and lime, and from our own experience are enabled to recommend both. We are not sure which has the preference. The lime and the ashes should both be dug in, every spring. A friend suggests, that he killed his young peach trees by lime. Caution is needed in the application.—*Mass. Ag. Repos.*

A Cure for the Red Ants.

The evils of this little visitant, are well known to perhaps every house wife, and perhaps nothing would more exhilarate the domestic circle than the discovery of a remedy for the red ants. Such discovery I have made and wish you to communicate to the public through your useful paper. Common salt is a complete barrier to the approach of the red ant. Let the salt be so placed that they cannot approach the place from which you wish to exclude them without passing over it, and the remedy is complete. For instance, if you wish to exclude them from the cellar cupboard or any movable cupboard, if it has no legs make artificial legs to your cupboard, then provide something suitable to hold for each leg of the cupboard, a pint or a quart of salt, in which place the legs of the cupboard, and set it free from every thing else so that nothing can creep on to it without passing over the salt, and the remedy is complete. Having tested this remedy for two seasons I have no hesitation in recommending it as a complete cure.—*Worcester Ægis.*

Facts Worth Knowing.

In New England, in the days of my grandmother they used to preserve their ripe Watermelons and Green Corn so as to have them fresh in winter and spring, by placing them, till used, under their haystacks. This practice might perhaps be applied usefully to some other fruit and vegetables.

Farmers too, might easily save the flesh of horses and cows, and confer a kindness on their animals, in preventing the usual annoyance of flies by simply *oiling* the parts most exposed. Flies will not alight a moment on the spot, over which an oiled sponge or cloth has been pressed. Probably fish or flaxseed oil would answer; but what I have known with success was the Tanner's oil. Every man who is compassionate to his beast, ough to know this simple remedy, and every livery stable and country inn ought to have a supply at hand for the use of travellers.

25,000 Mulberry Trees.

WE have 25,000 White Italian Mulberry Trees 3 years old, which we will sell at $25 per 1000, or $3 per 100. If 5000 or upwards are taken, a deduction will be made.

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THIS establishment now comprises over 20 acres, covered compactly with Trees and Plants in the different stages of their growth.

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